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AUTHOR McCourt-Lewis, Anne A.
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ABSTRACT

Taking a psycholinguistic approach, this paper presents an overview of vocabulary and word identification instruction. Sources for instructional procedures are discussed rather than detailed suggestions for teaching procedures. Five approaches to word identification are examined: sight vocabulary development, phonic analysis, structural analysis, contextual analysis, and dictionary usage. After the distinction between instruction in word identification and vocabulary development is clarified--associating word identification with process and vocabulary development with product--the components of vocabulary-concept instruction are examined, and examples of coordinated instruction in word identification and vocabulary development are discussed. Several suggestions for coordinated instruction are offered, including these combinations: (1) phonic analysis/high utility word meanings, (2) phonic analysis/word associations, (3) structural analysis/antonyms, (4) semantic feature analysis/contextual analysis, (5) dictionary usage/multiple meanings, (6) contextual analysis/homographs, (7) connotation-denotation/contextual analysis, and (8) word devices/phonic analysis. Categorizing sight words and using analogies are also proposed as activities for coordinated instruction. (RL)

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Anne A. McCourt-Lewis, Ph.D
Dept. of Educational Development
College of Education
University of Delaware
Newark, DE 19711

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

SYNONYM FOR

SENSE-IBLE WORD IDENTIFICATION

INSTRUCTION

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT: SYNONYM FOR SENSE-IBLE WORD IDENTIFICATION INSTRUCTION

Ten words, one under the other, listed on the chalkboard. Above this column of isolated symbols, a reading group assignment: Eagles--Write a sentence for each of these words. Use your dictionary if necessary. On the next section of chalkboard, this assignment: Sparrows--Do pages 14-15 in your phonics workbook.

In far too many elementary schools, the above glimpse of a classroom corner conveys the nature of much of the instruction devoted to vocabulary development and to word identification. Well-meaning teachers assume that generating sentences or developing meaning for each of a set of discrete words will aid students in comprehending those same words in reading materials. It is also assumed that when pupils can determine the letter/sound associations for isolated words in a phonics workbook they can also recognize and comprehend those words in text selections. However, classroom activities like those assigned to the soaring Eagles and the ground-hugging Sparrows have little or no relationship to the actual reading task.

Artley (1975) writes, "It is not the identification of each word in sequence, with word meaning added to word meaning in serial order, that gives meaning to a sentence. It is the sentence that gives meaning to the words" (p. 1069). He concludes his article with implications for the teacher of reading. 1) Instruction focused on words and word identification (a term apparently used in Artley's article as a synonym for word pronunciation) should be subordinate to a concern for meaning and comprehension. 2) Instruction should aid the child in developing a background of experiences, understandings, and concepts so that s/he can reconstruct stated and implied meanings from printed symbols.

This paper will attempt to present an overview of vocabulary and word identification instruction responsive to the implications from psycholinguistics summarized by Artley. In order to be as brief as possible, the writer will direct the reader to some excellent sources for instructional procedures rather than including detailed teaching suggestions within these pages. And--let the bias of the writer be evident at the outset--this article is based on the following premise: Reading for meaning should be an integral part of any classroom activity that merits the label "developmental reading instruction."

The term word identification will be used here in the Smith (1971, 1978) sense: Identification is not the same as recognition; identification includes discrimination and categorization, or the assignment of meaning. (In 1948, McKee made a similar distinction between the terms identification and recognition.) Word identification instruction, properly focused, can develop a pupil's comprehension strategies as well as her/his word perception strategies. Word identification instruction, carefully planned to provide experiences with words in a variety of contexts, can refine concepts and increase vocabulary.

Word Identification Instruction

"What," says a decoding-oriented reader, "is a nice heading like that doing in a place like this--a paper on vocabulary development?"

"What better place?" says the author. Aren't the word identification skills of structural analysis, contextual analysis, and dictionary usage aimed also at developing meaning for words--and thus also at developing vocabulary?"

Unfortunately, as commonly taught, some word identification skills are not focused on meaning. Table 1 lists the activities generally included in word identification instruction and indicates the usual objective of each. The term decoding is employed in the table (and elsewhere in this text) to signify exclusive concern for translating a printed symbol into a verbal symbol.

Insert Table 1 about here

It seems to this author (and to many others as well, e.g. Burns and Roe, 1976) that the types of word identification included in most developmental reading programs fall into the following five categories: sight vocabulary development, phonic analysis, structural analysis, contextual analysis, dictionary usage. (Some authors, of course, categorize differently. For example, Miller, 1977, includes picture clues as a separate category, and Smith and Barrett, 1974, include a sixth category labeled meaning clues.)

Sight Vocabulary Development

Instruction to develop the instantaneous recognition of printed words is carried out in almost all elementary classrooms. Experts from Huey (1908) to Samuels (1976) appear to agree that automatic decoding frees the reader to process meaning. However, over-concentration on stimulus-response sight word instruction--for instance, teacher presents flashcard and student pronounces the flashcard word--may result in mere verbalism when the student meets the word in text. Instruction and practice often employed in the classroom appear to emphasize this type of sight word response--solely a decoding response.

The term sight vocabulary (or sight words) has several distinct definitions.

1. A body of high-utility words (to be) taught, by means of a variety of instructional techniques, over a relatively long period of time.
2. A set of words specific to a particular selection (to be) taught, by means of a whole-word instructional technique, during the lesson dealing with that selection.
3. A body of words each of whose meaning is instantaneously available to the reader when s/he encounters the printed symbol; words (to be) acquired, by means of a variety of learner strategies, throughout the reader's lifetime.
4. A body of words each of whose pronunciation is instantaneously available to the reader when s/he encounters the printed symbol; words (to be) acquired, by means of a variety of learner strategies, throughout the reader's lifetime.

Figure 1 presents Venn diagrams illustrating the above definitions.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Definitions 1 and 2 refer to what a teacher does or plans to do; the set of words encompassed by definition 2 may, or may not, contain words encompassed by definition 1. Definitions 3 and 4 refer to what a child or reader, possesses or will possess; the body of words encompassed by definition 4 clearly intersects the body of words encompassed by definition 3; however, the two bodies of words are not necessarily equivalent sets.

A reader may be able to instantly pronounce a word yet have no meaning for that word (e.g. zibet); and, a reader may have instantaneous meaning for a word yet be unsure of its pronunciation (e.g., the writer had difficulty, for several years, deciding whether to say Freeze or Frys when encountering the name of the linguist Charles Fries). Reading teachers sometimes assume equivalence between the words encompassed by definitions 3 and 4, for instance in the standard procedure of administering word lists requiring oral response as the first step in an Informal Reading Inventory. (Testing is often focused on assessing the "match" between definitions 1-2 and definitions 3-4.) And, this assumption is also evident in instruction to develop sight vocabulary.

It seems, to the writer, that sight vocabulary (definitions 1 and 2) instruction at primary grades should be focused chiefly on the intersection of definitions 3 and 4, and at middle grades and beyond should be focused chiefly on definition 3.

In the balance of this paper, the term sight vocabulary, or sight words, will be used to refer to those printed symbols for which a reader has instantaneous meaning although not necessarily the ability to pronounce (definition 3); for want of a word without ambiguous meaning (e.g., decodable words might mean words decodable at sight or words decodable through application of phonic analysis), the term a capella vocabulary (a capella - without instrumental accompaniment; instrumental - helpful; instrument - a means by which something is done; American Heritage Dictionary, Morris, 1969) will be used to refer to those printed symbols for which a reader has instantaneous pronunciation although not necessarily the ability to comprehend (definition 4).

The very first instruction to develop sight vocabulary should always focus on both decoding (pronouncing the word) and comprehension (understanding the meaning of the word in context). Comprehension aspects should be included when the word is first introduced and as the last step in the teaching activity. See "Teaching a Sight Vocabulary" (definition 1 focus) in Chapter 2, Teaching Reading Vocabulary by Johnson and Pearson (1978) for specific instructional procedures. At elementary grade levels, games and learning center activities for the development of sight words should also include both the sound and the sense of words used as targets. Unfortunately, not all of the games suggested by Johnson and Pearson in their Chapter 2 meet this criteria. See the activities book by Evelyn Spache (1976) for some additional games that might be used.

Configuration. The general word shape created by ascending and descending letters is sometimes touted as an aid to word identification or, rather, word pronunciation. This method of word recognition quickly deteriorates into ambiguity; for example, as soon as words like them - then - this need to be differentiated. Therefore, it seems to the writer that teaching children to attend to word shape or configuration may create a "mind-set" for a useless identification strategy--somewhat akin to teaching that one can recognize, as a horse, a large animal with a big head, four legs, and a tail (an aid of doubtful utility when approached by a tiger).

Phonics Analysis Instruction

The usual objective of instruction in phonics is achieved when a child can pronounce unfamiliar words. But, just as instruction in sight word development should begin and end with a focus on comprehension, phonic analysis instruction should always help the child realize that s/he must comprehend the meaning of any word s/he decodes.

To achieve this objective, instruction in the dual use of phonics and context (oral, when necessary) should be included in the teaching procedures developing the very first letter/sound associations introduced to the child. See Getting Ready to Read (J. Lewis, et. al: 1976) for a full presentation of this dual strategy combining decoding and meaning.

Presentation of words in context must continue throughout the teaching of the useful letter/sound associations and phonic generalizations. The word live, for instance, is an example of the "silent e - long first vowel" principle only in context.

I watered the fern then realized the plant was not a live one.

Without context, live (like many other printed symbols) is an ambiguous word. It might be a referent for having life or for one of the ten other meanings for live (long i); it might also be a referent for to reside or for one of the eight other meanings for live (short i) listed by the American Heritage Dictionary (Morris, 1969).

In phonics instruction, the only use for isolated, meaning-less words the writer can presently think of is to assess a child's mastery of phonic elements and principles. And, for this use, nonsense words seem the appropriate stimulus (Ekwall, 1976); any real words used as a stimulus may have been incorporated into a child's sight or a capella vocabulary by means of a whole-word strategy and thus invalidate the assessment of phonic skills.

Without the use of context, teachers must also realize that decoding, or pronouncing, a word may result in meaning only if that word is a potent one in a child's listening/speaking vocabulary. The use of context, however, may trigger pronunciation and meaning for a word in a child's marginal

listening/speaking vocabulary. Of course, weak context may provide very little assistance in deriving meaning other than the word's form class or function and a vague sense of some of the word-concept's attributes. What meaning do you have for refulgent in the following sentence?

The refulgent display amazed the onlookers.

When utilizing children's literature or many current reading series at levels beyond the early primary grades, it is extremely hazardous to healthy comprehension to assume that a pronounced word is also a meaningful word. (For example, are you pronouncing refulgent as ruh-fuhl'-jent even though you may have little knowledge of its meaning?) And this assumption may be hazardous for even the beginning levels of many reading materials if the child's background is not one which includes standard English and middle-class culture. Attention to meaning as an integral part of phonics instruction and phonics games will eliminate this kind of assumptive teaching, strengthen the child's concept that the end product of reading is meaning not pronunciation, and increase the child's sight vocabulary.

Syllabication. The foster-child of word identification instruction, the skill at times resides under the category of phonics instruction (e.g., Harris & Smith, 1976), often findsshelter under structural analysis (e.g., Burns & Roe, 1976), occasionally is housed under dictionary usage (e.g., Stauffer, 1975), very rarely is allowed a separate accommodation (e.g., Spache, 1976), and, on a few occasions, is denied admittance altogether (Zuck, 1974).

Whatever its category, syllabication appears to have limited utility as a means of either pronouncing or comprehending words (Johnson & Pearson, (1978). And the type of instruction often provided to develop syllabication

(e.g., drawing lines between syllables with the aim of achieving a match to the dictionary division for entry words) requires that the child know how to pronounce a word before identifying the syllables in that word.

Appropriate instruction in syllabication (for the reading task) should be aimed at helping the child develop, for an unfamiliar printed symbol, an approximation to a word in the listening/speaking vocabulary that fits the context. And, for example, either hatch-et or hat-chet should be accepted as attainment of the objective if the child associates his/her verbal symbol with a small ax-like tool.

In many instances, the use of context plus phonics is a much more efficient strategy than syllabication. In most other cases, structural analysis plus context and, perhaps, phonics does the job. And if neither of these strategies work, the reader probably needs to use the dictionary.

Johnson and Pearson (1978) suggest that the use of syllabication in classrooms should be "considerably diminished" (p. 7). And Deighton (1958) points out,

> To insist on mastery of "rules" of syllabication is to make syllabication and end in itself. The correct way to pronounce a word can be made sure of only by consulting the dictionary. And, the "correct" way to divide a typed or printed word is of importance only to stenographers and printers, never to readers. (p. 35)

Structural Analysis

The procedures employed in most classrooms to develop skill in structural analysis usually do focus on meaning. It is chiefly at early grade levels that a child is directed to note common endings (e.g., -ing) and beginnings (e.g., re-) or combinations of two known words (compound words) so that s/he can pronounce an unfamiliar word.

Instruction in structural analysis should, however, also develop in the child the strategy of using this skill in combination with contextual analysis and, if needed, phonic analysis. And, as in effective phonics instruction, the structural elements worthy of instructional effort should be useful. See Deighton (1959) for the following usable elements: 26 combining forms (e.g. mono-); 12 prefixes (e.g. mis-); 86 suffixes (e.g. -cide). For instructional activities dealing with affixes, compounds, and contractions, refer to books by Deighton (1959), Johnson and Pearson (1978), and Spache (1976). These authors offer a smorgasbord; teachers concerned with the "meat" of reading (meaning) will select, from this array, mostly those procedures which include attention to contextual meaning and, thus, will also enlarge a pupil's vocabulary.

(Syllabication - see previous discussion under phonic analysis.)

Contextual Analysis

Excerpts from two 1976 publications are quoted below:

1. "The words, phrases, and sentences surrounding the material [to be identified] are used to gain meaning.... The teacher can help children be aware of syntactic clues as well as meaning [semantic] clues." (pp. 164-167)
2. "Readers utilize...three kinds of information simultaneously. Certainly without graphic input there would be no reading. But, the reader uses syntactic and semantic information as well [to gain meaning]." (p. 503)

The first quotation is excerpted from the section on using context clues in the Burns and Roe text Teaching Reading in Today's Elementary Schools. The second is from Goodman's often republished article, "Reading:

A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." The point of juxtaposing the two excerpts is to suggest that appropriate instruction in the use of contextual analysis is instruction in the process of reading. (See Goodman's ten step model of the reading process, 1976.)

Effective instruction in contextual analysis should enable the child to understand that

1. Identification of an unfamiliar word may be achieved through use of the context surrounding the unfamiliar word in combination with the use of the phonic analysis (graphophonic cues) or/and the structural analysis (morphemic cues) of the unfamiliar word.
2. Decision as to whether the tentatively identified unfamiliar word is an appropriate choice must be based on both sentence sense (syntax) and a sense of the interrelationships among the words employed (semantics).
3. Contextual help may be provided by material before or/and after or/and within the sentence containing the unfamiliar word; help may also be provided by other contextual aids: pictures, graphics, typography, headings - subheadings, literary style (e.g. satire), etc.
4. Identification of an unfamiliar word is to be regarded as tentative. If later context indicates that the word has been mis-identified (a miscue), the previous and the later context should be combined (reread, if necessary) in order to achieve a revised identification of the word.

5. Given establishment of the procedure indicated in 4 above, only the minimal number of cues necessary to provide a tentative identification of an unfamiliar word should be employed.

Note that if the words the group of printed symbols within the perceptual span are substituted for an unfamiliar word in each of the above five statements the result is a simplified version of a psycholinguistic analysis of the reading process. Note, too, that the general procedures for using context and graphic cues described in the above statements were also advocated, long before psycholinguistic literature had strong impact on reading, by McKee (1948, 1966)

> If he [the pupil] understands clearly what he is trying to do and realizes that each strange word is one which makes sense with what the lines are saying..., his use of the context and the beginning sound together will suggest to him quickly...words that fit the context and begin with the right sound. Immediately his use of one or more additional sounds will enable him to decide which of the suggested words is the right one.... For any given strange word, the number of letter sounds the pupil will need to use from among those represented in the word will depend almost entirely upon the strength of the context in which the word appears, but rarely will he need to use all of them. (1966, p. 101)

For suggestions on teaching the use of context, refer to Johnson and Pearson (1978), Chapter 5 in Teaching Reading Comprehension by Pearson and Johnson (1978), and Smith and Barrett (1974).

Picture clues and graphic aids. Since beginning readers have an almost empty storehouse of sight words and few, if any, word identification strategies, reading materials at early levels often limit the number of words employed in the text and rely heavily on illustrations to help carry storyline. Instruction at these levels, therefore, directs the child to utilize pictures as a form of contextual aid in identifying unfamiliar words. However illustrations are often ambiguous, and they also contain extraneous (and distracting) information; this technique of word identification is consequently of limited utility.

Graphic aids (charts, graphs, diagrams, etc.), on the other hand, are usually "bare bones" depictions of relevant material and are focused directly on displaying the relationships among elements as described in the text's sentences and paragraphs. Although current books on reading (e.g. Burns & Roe, 1976) do devote some attention to instruction in understanding graphic devices, authors have paid very little heed to instruction in relating understandings gained from graphics to the comprehension of the reading matter itself and to the identification of unfamiliar words.

Dictionary Usage

This paper began by decrying vocabulary instruction that presents an isolated word and directs a child to the dictionary in order to develop a sentence using that word. For the reading task, the beginning focus is not the word; in the beginning is the sentence (and the total context)

containing the word. For the reading task, the dictionary is used to continue the process of searching for "meaning-suited-to-the context" of an unfamiliar word or of a word whose known meaning does not "fit" the context.

Skill in using the dictionary then, like ability to use graphic aids, requires instruction of two types: a) understanding the kinds of information included and locating that information; b) knowing how to apply the information gained to reading material. See Spache (1976) and Johnson and Pearson (1978) for teaching suggestions.

Instruction must also aid the child in understanding when to use a dictionary. If a specific or full meaning of an unfamiliar word (or words) is crucial to comprehending the thrust of a selection, and if adequate meaning for that word is not obtainable through use of the five procedures described previously under Contextual Analysis, then the reader should resort to the dictionary; on the other hand, if the specific or full meaning of an unfamiliar word (or words) is not crucial, the reader might then note the word(s) for possible later dictionary search and proceed with the reading. For instance, if a child were involved in an account of the Three Kings' visit to the Christ Child, and if the text consistently referred to the wisemen only as Magi, the child would probably need to use a dictionary to develop a full understanding of the protagonists. However, in reading that same selection, the child would probably not need a dictionary to determine specific meanings for frankencense and myrrh (unless, perhaps, the child had decoded the former term as Frankenstein and needed to resolve comprehension difficulties created by that miscue).

Independent learning activities focused on direct use of the dictionary to build vocabulary should always present the target word(s) in context of some sort: "How is a flume like a gorge?" (Johnson & Pearson, 1978, p. 156), and careful preparation of the context in which target words are presented will also help to develop concepts that the child associates with the printed symbols. (The next section of this paper will deal with concepts, context, and vocabulary development.)

Teachers of reading should also plan time for and help stimulate independent reading in a variety of materials. Wide reading will, in turn, introduce children to new words. And encouraging children's use of a dictionary will establish and refine those new words as sight vocabulary.

Syllabication. Although previous comments (see Contextual Analysis) disparaged teaching effort spent on syllabication in other categories of word identification skills, instruction in the use of dictionary syllabication for pronunciation is appropriate instruction. The author, however, would modify Deighton's (1959) comment: "The correct way to pronounce a word can be made sure of only by consulting a dictionary" (p. 35, emphasis added). At elementary levels, if the child's decoded word is associated with the relevant meaning, then the child's variant pronunciation due to dialectic differences should be accepted by the teacher. After all, whether an egg is spoken of as hard-boiled, hard-burld, or hard-bald will probably depend on one's geographic location not on one's ability to use a dictionary's syllabication and pronunciation key.

Summary

The preceding overview of word identification instruction has attempted to clarify the view that development of an independent, effective reader

is based on teaching procedures which build in the child (and the teacher) two basic understandings:

1. The end-product of an activity termed reading is comprehension of any printed symbols processed during that activity; any alternative end-product signifies that the activity engaged in has not been a reading activity.
2. The reader is involved in a continual search for meaning; the strategies employed are to be used in the most efficient manner possible and range from (a) the fluent strategy of processing print by means of a combined use of one's sight vocabulary (graphophonic and morphemic cues triggering semantic cues triggering graphophonic cues, etc.) and the context (syntactic and semantic cues) to (b) the mediating strategy of identifying unfamiliar printed words by combining the previous strategy with structural analysis or/and phonic analysis to (c) the inefficient, but very often important, information-locating strategy of using the dictionary in combination with the first strategy.

It is the author's contention that word identification instruction, organized as described in the foregoing pages, coordinates the teaching of decoding and comprehension. Perhaps, then, this suggested word identification program is indeed responsive to the tenor, if not the letter, of one of Artley's implications: "Meaning and comprehension are preeminent concerns in instruction, and words and word identification [decoding] are subordinate to that function. Certainly, words are a stimuli to meaning, but our past preoccupation with words has put the cart far ahead of the horse" (1975, p. 1072).

Concepts, Context, and Vocabulary Development

Artley's other implications for reading instruction were,

> A background of experiences, understandings, and concepts is essential if meanings are to be reconstructed from printed symbols. Meaning does not reside in words. As symbols they serve only to stimulate meaning that already exists as a result of both direct and vicarious experiences. Furthermore, it is the association of a given word with other words in the passage that invests it with precise meaning. It is the context in which the word is embedded rather than the dictionary that gives it its unique flavor ....
>
> So from the time the child enters school, the teacher's primary concern should be with both the stated and implied meaning of the passage. The questions asked about content read must challenge comprehension on various levels from simple to complex. (1975, p. 1072)

In response to the last implication, authors of several reading programs presently utilized in elementary classrooms might reply, and justifiably so, that their materials already provide for questioning at a variety of levels of comprehension. However, these same programs include very little, if any, instructional activities (or experiences) to develop and integrate the concepts associated with vocabulary comprising reading selections. Limited conceptual development for sight, or reading, vocabulary may perhaps in part account for the author's finding that elementary pupils (second and sixth graders; all pupils with 95% or better word recognition scores

on the passages) made significantly more correct responses to passage-dependent, literal level questions than to passage-dependent, inference and evaluation level questions (McCourt, 1978).

In a stimulating book on teaching comprehension, Pearson and Johnson (1978) point out, "It is important for teachers to emphasize word level comprehension tasks because they represent possible complications in the process of reading comprehension" (p. 78). The two authors also observe that,

> The nature of...associative responses implies that knowledge of concepts associated with...stimulus words is schematically rather than randomly organized. (p. 25)
>
> Teachers can manipulate instruction in order to modify and expand the kinds of semantic maps students carry around in their heads. (p. 78)
>
> Most of the...formats that are so widely used for word identification activities can be modified for word level comprehension tasks. (p. 79)

The above observations underlie the proposition repeatedly stressed throughout the preceding overview; word identification instruction, carefully planned to provide experiences with words in a variety of contexts, can refine concepts and increase vocabulary. In other words, just as word identification instruction can be coordinated to develop both decoding and comprehension, the context used for instruction can be planned to build both word identification strategies and expanded concepts (vocabulary development). A word identification program with this instructional design then is synonomous with instruction designed for vocabulary development. See Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 about here

The Synonymy of Instruction for Word Identification and Vocabulary Development

The author is obviously not attempting to maintain the distinction between the terms word identification instruction and vocabulary development instruction pointed out by Smith and Barrett (1974): "It is very difficult to separate vocabulary development from word identification. To some the former implies learning new words while the latter refers to learning to recognize printed forms of words already in a child's oral/aural vocabulary" (p. 44).

The distinction between word identification and vocabulary development referred to above seems, to the author, to obfuscate, or confuse, rather than clarify. The five commonly accepted strategies of word identification (teaching or use of sight words, phonic analysis, structural analysis, contextual analysis, dictionary usage) are utilized to enable the reader to decode and to comprehend both words in the oral/aural vocabulary and words not presently included in that vocabulary. In fact, it is probably chiefly through the four latter strategies (and wide reading) that the child adds the "new" words which eventually comprise the reading vocabulary distinguishing the literate adult. At beginning levels, limiting the vocabulary included in reading materials to printed forms of words already in a young child's aural/oral vocabulary is imperative; but, when an association between the printed symbol in the text and the referent for the oral/aural symbol is firmly established, the printed symbol becomes a "new" word added to the child's reading vocabulary. Differentiating between

word identification and vocabulary development by focusing on whether the word learned is "new" is a dubious distinction when the processes involved and the end product are the same in both instances. No, the distinction between the two terms lies in their respective referents: word identification refers to processes and vocabulary development to product. The processes of phonic analysis, structural analysis, contextual analysis, and using a dictionary result (when applied effectively, and perhaps repeatedly) in the addition of new words to one's stock of sight words; the end product of the word-identification processes is vocabulary development. The term sight words, as discussed previously, is ambiguous. The child employs his/her present stock of sight words when using the word identification skill of contextual analysis and thereby adds new words to his/her reading vocabulary. The teacher provides instruction in recognizing words by their visual characteristics--at sight--so that the child can add these words to his/her reading, or sight, vocabulary: sight word teaching. In a precise use of the term word identification ("...the ability to assign meaning...to printed words not previously encountered or learned," Smith and Barrett, 1974, p. 24), sight words are, then, a component of contextual analysis, not a separate category of word identification skill.

Any distinction between instruction in word identification and instruction in vocabulary development seems, to the author, to be one of a shift in emphasis. At early grades, the teacher plans instruction for word identification skills and, also, reading vocabulary development. Knowledge of word identification strategies is not assumed; oral/aural knowledge--meaning--of words used for instruction is assumed, but the teacher

constantly checks on the validity of this assumption. At later grades, the teacher plans instruction for reading (and, hopefully, other) vocabulary development and, also, word identification skills. Oral/aural knowledge of words used for instruction is not assumed; knowledge of word identification strategies is assumed, but the teacher constantly checks on the validity of this assumption. A parallel to this emphasis shift is that the teacher plans instruction in phonic analysis to develop decoding and, also, comprehension skills, and s/he plans instruction in structural analysis to develop comprehension and, also, decoding skills.

The balance of this paper will attempt to clarify how instruction for the simultaneous development of vocabulary-concepts and word identification strategies might be implemented.

Components of Vocabulary-Concept Instruction

Pearson and Johnson (1978) present nine word level tasks focused on synonyms, antonyms, word associations, classifications, analogies, connotative-denotative meanings, multiple meanings, homographs, homophones. See Table 2 adapted from Pearson and Johnson.

Insert Table 2 about here

The two authors have categorized these tasks as simple associations (1-4), complex associations (5-6), and ambiguous words (7-9). Their Chapter 4 - "Understanding Concepts" presents teaching suggestions for each and ways of combining and refining these tasks. For example, antonyms are words opposite in meaning, but Pearson and Johnson note that there are many kinds of opposition terms: contradictory (e.g. alive-dead), contrary (e.g. fat-thin), reverse (e.g. stop-go), counterparts (e.g. mother-father), contrasted (e.g. raw-ripe). Task refinements, such as the previous example for antonyms, are presented by Pearson and Johnson to enable

teachers to plan more appropriate instruction at all grade levels and so that these vocabulary niceties might be presented, with label, to more capable students at levels beyond elementary. For additional instructional procedures to develop concepts along with vocabulary see Hafner and Jolly (1972), McIntyre (1977), Moffet and Wagner (1976), Otto, Peters, and Peters (1977), and Spache (1976).

An alternative way of categorizing the instructional components of word-level concept expansion (or vocabulary development) would be to sort these components into categories related to the lexical aspects of words, the conceptual or semantic networks to which words refer, and the related concepts that refine the interpretation of words. This approach to categorization also appears, to the author, to suggest the outline of a scope and sequence of instruction that might be easily assimilated into a developmental reading program (one category leads into the next, and tasks within a single category lead into the following tasks). The author's suggestion for this framework is presented in Table 3. Other categorization alternatives, obviously, would also be possible.

Insert Table 3 about here

The subcategories of high utility meaning(s), semantic features, and word devices not appearing in Table 2 have been added by the author to Table 3 because they seem to provide needed transitions. High utility meaning is suggested as the entry point into the instructional matrix. Instruction in semantic features analysis is described fully in Johnson and Pearson (1978, pp. 38-45). Semantic features instruction develops the

understanding that "no two words have exactly the same range of meanings, for if they did, one of them would likely fall out of use" (p. 38). The basic steps, recommended by Johnson and Pearson, for teaching semantic features analysis are as follows:

1. Select a category (e.g., conveyances).
2. List vertically some words within the category (e.g., car, bike).
3. List horizontally features shared by some words (e.g., motor).
4. Put pluses or minuses beside each word beneath each feature (numerical values indicating the degree to which the feature is possessed may also be used).
5. Add additional words vertically.
6. Add additional features horizontally.
7. Complete the expanded matrix with pluses and minuses (or numerical values).
8. Discover and discuss each word's uniqueness.

Examples of Coordinated Instruction

In order to pull together the points discussed in this paper, brief examples of instruction which coordinates word identification and vocabulary development will be provided. A few caveats are in order. One right answer is not to be anticipated; divergent thinking, on the other hand, is to be encouraged. However, pupils should be asked to discuss their reasons for any answers supplied. If paper and pencil activities are utilized, pupils' answers should later be explored verbally in a group situation; peer interaction permits children to learn, from each other, a variety of creative ways in which concepts may be expanded. A teacher must not attempt

to shape children's developing concepts into the network possessed by the teacher; that network was developed through each individual teacher's own experiences. To introduce activities to younger children, concrete experiences should be used as much as possible, particularly for procedures such as semantic analysis instruction.

The suggestions listed below are only that--possible ways of developing coordinated instruction. These possibilities are endless, and if one needs a "spark" to start, explore some of the sources referred to throughout the previous pages.

1. Phonic analysis - high utility word meanings. If students had just read a basal selection employing the word sneeze, and if the decoding program had not yet developed a sound association for the letters ee, print on the board a sentence from the story containing the word (e.g. "I am going to sneeze."). Have the sentence read aloud. Isolate the word and the vowel digraph ee, and then teach the sound association through words like squeeze, breeze, trees, etc. To provide practice in using the sound association and to provide meaning for the decoded words, print context on the board (or present oral context) to be completed by inserting each of the words developed in the lesson (e.g., In the autumn, a _____ can make the fallen leaves dance around.) Discuss what the inserted word means in that context (e.g., breeze - a gentle wind).

2. Phonic analysis - associations for words. Follow up instruction for the above lesson: present the words again in new context (I am going to sneeze. Little Bear gave his mother a squeeze. The breeze belw off his hat.) Have the sentences read; then develop associations for each of the

words (e.g., breeze - gentle, blow, leaves, etc.). The children would be asked to provide orally a sentence using the target word and its associated word (e.g., The breeze blew away my homework.).

3. Structural analysis - antonyms. (It appears to the author that structural analysis is a very appropriate area in which to develop both antonyms and synonyms. This would ensure that the child has a firm grasp of meanings for the structural elements presented, e.g., unhappy-sad; unhappy-merry). Develop a lesson focused on the change from noun to adjective resulting from the addition of -y. Present wind - windy, sleep - sleepy, etc., and have the child supply the correct form for context like

a) The _____ blew the leaves around.

b) It was a _____ day.

Then the child should be asked to substitute a word in sentence (b) that meant the opposite of windy (e.g., calm).

4. Contextual analysis - synonyms. Print a sentence to be completed: The _____ lifted the kite high up in the sky. Then elicit from children all the words they can think of that might fit that sentence. (wind, breeze, blast of air, etc.). Each time a word is suggested, have the sentence reread with that word inserted and discuss any possible changes in meaning.

5. Semantic feature analysis - contextual analysis. As follow up instruction to the lesson described above in 4, the semantic features of all the suggested synonyms (e.g., breeze, wind, blast, etc.) might be discussed through the development of a matrix.

Words	Semantic Features (0 - Least; 5 - Most)			
	Strength	Harmful	Duration	etc.
wind	1-5	0-5	1-5	
breeze	1-2	0	2-3	
blast	3-4	3	1	

Then children could be asked to decide which word choices are indicated by the following context:

The sudden _____ blew open the door.

The leaves fluttered in the _____.

Near the ocean, the _____ blows almost all the time.

Each choice should be discussed by referring to the matrix (e.g. Why is blast a better choice for the first sentence than breeze?).

6. Dictionary usage - multi meanings. Context like the following might be provided:

Tom said last night's homework was a breeze.

Janie breezed along on her bike.

Ask pupils to check their dictionaries for the appropriate meaning choice for each sentence. Discuss these choices and the dictionary's use of parts of speech abbreviations.

breeze (n) 1. a gentle wind; 2. an easy task.

breeze (v) 1. to blow lightly; 2. to move effortlessly and swiftly.

Have children generate sentences for the other meaning(s) listed in the dictionary. Print these sentences on the board and have similarities (if any) in associations for each word meaning explored; also explore differences in associations.

7. Contextual analysis - homographs. Print the word wind on the board. Ask children to supply a definition. Then print the following context:

You need to _____ your watch.

Hold onto your hat or the _____ will blow it off.

Discuss (a) how two words with the same spelling can differ in pronunciation and meaning and (b) that one cannot be sure of the meaning of a word until one considers the context in which the word is found.

8. Examples, categories - sight words. Print the following context: A _____ is an example of a _____. Provide a list of scrambled words from pupils' reading selections (e.g., peach, blast, vehicle, fruit, apple, breeze, car, wind, truck, etc.). Have children sort words into categories by trying pairs of words in the frame. (If children are able youngsters--or have had previous practice with this type of activity--for each of the categories to be identified, include a non-example word: e.g., bean, plane, thunderstorm. Discuss why each is a non-example. If possible, develop a superordinate category which would include all the related words, e.g., the category plants includes fruit (peach) and vegetables (bean).

9. Connotation, dennotation - contextual analysis. Print the following sentences:

The football player breezed through his opponents.

The football player blasted through his opponents.

The footabll player moved through his opponents.

Discuss how meaning varies in each sentence, and explore the information conveyed in the first two sentences that is not present in the last sentence. Develop suggestions as to what the previous and later context for each sentence might be. Explore the relationships between sentences in the suggested context.

10. Word devices - phonic analysis. Play "Stinky-Pinky." Ask pupils to supply two rhyming words which would explain the stimulus words and which would contain the number of syllables indicated by the variation of the game title provided by the teacher. (e.g., a "Stink-Pink" for a quick wind - a fast blast; a "stinky-pinky" for the kind of chocolate bar you really like - a dandy candy). Have pupils make up their own "Stinky Pinkys".

11. Analogies. All of the previous suggestions have, of course, also included instruction to develop comprehension as well as instruction to build word identification skills and vocabulary. To respond to tasks in the category of analogies requires a high level of comprehension and a well-developed conceptual network. Each of the above activities also included the words breeze or wind (or related words) so that the author could demonstrate how a well planned program of vocabulary development might provide a basis for understanding the task required by an analogy. See Table 4 for the understandings that might possibly have been developed through the suggested instruction.

Insert Table 4 about here

Now, consider the following analogies:

a. Breeze is to wind as cat is to _____.

b. Breeze is to wind as _____ is to animal.

c. Windy is to calm as light is to _____.

d. Breeze is to blow as rain is to _____.

Given that a child had knowledge of the word-concept relationships displayed in Table 4, isn't it possible that s/he might realize (perhaps intuitively)

that a word naming a category which includes the example cat is required in analogy a? That a word naming an example from the animal category is required in analogy b? That an antonym for the word light is required in analogy c? And that a word associated with rain and naming something rain does is required in analogy d?

And, since the patterns of relationships among ideas developed at the word-concept level "apply to sentences, paragraphs, and passages as well" (Pearson & Johnson, 1978, p. 52), shouldn't well planned procedures for vocabulary-concept development (procedures that could be sensibly integrated into word identification instruction) be considered a necessary component of a developmental reading program focused on comprehension, or reading for meaning?

Table 1

Usual Objective of Various Types of Word Identification Instruction

Type of Instruction	Usual Objective of Instruction	
	Decoding	Comprehension
1. Sight vocabulary development	X	0
Configuration	?	0
2. Phonic analysis	X	0
Syllabication	?	0
3. Structural analysis	X	X
Syllabication	?	0
4. Contextual analysis	0	X
Picture clues	?	?
Graphic aids	0	X
5. Dictionary usage	X	X
Syllabication	X	0

Note: X = objective; 0 = not objective;
? = objective but skill of limited utility

Table 2

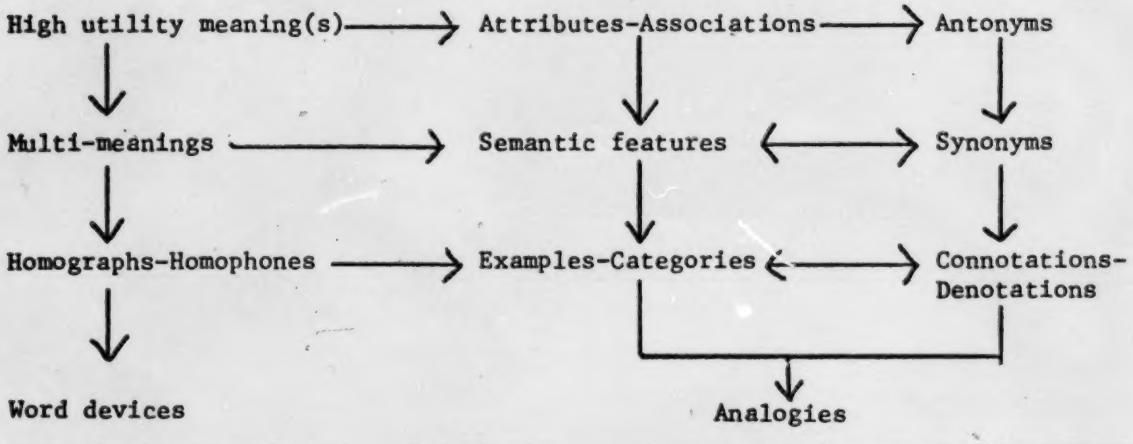
Adaptation of Pearson and Johnson's (1978)

Word Level Comprehension Tasks (p. 53)

Task	Relationship of Words
1. Recognize that two words can have similar meanings	Synonyms
2. Recognize that two words can have opposing meanings	Antonyms
3. Recognize that pairs of words often occur together (and often are linked by an attribute relationship, e.g., green-grass)	Associations
4. Recognize that a classificatory label has various examples that belong to that class (e.g., animal-dog, cat, horse)	Classes - Categories
5. Recognize that two pairs of words can be related in a similar way (e.g., dog is to bark as cat is to meow)	Analogies
6. Recognize that words that denote the same class may connote different meanings or feelings (e.g., I strolled, I walked)	Connotative - Denotative
7. Recognize that a given word can refer to different concepts (e.g., fly - to soar; fly - an insect)	Multiple meanings
8. Recognize that words alike in spelling can differ in pronunciation (e.g., proJECT - PROject)	Homographs
9. Recognize that words alike in sound can differ in spelling and meaning (e.g., fair - fare)	Homophones

Table 3

Suggested Categories[a] of Vocabulary-Concept Development and Possible Relationships of Subcategories[a]



Note: Word devices include portmanteau words, acronyms, onomatopoeia, malaprops, Hinky Pinky, graphic meanings, etc.

[a]Categories and subcategories have been adapted from Pearson and Johnson (1978) and Johnson and Pearson (1978).

Table 4

Possible Vocabulary Development for the Words Breeze and Wind

Lexical Aspects	Conceptual/Semantic Network	Related Concepts
High utility meaning	**Attributes-Associations**	**Antonyms**
breeze: a gentle wind	breeze: blows, light, leaves, gentle	windy: calm
Multi-meanings	**Semantic features**	
breeze (n) 1. a gentle wind. 2. an easy task. (v) 1. to blow lightly. 2. to move effortlessly and swiftly.		**Synonyms**
	breeze: gentle, no, rel. short	wind
	wind: varies, varies, varies	breeze
	blast: strong, perhaps, short	blast
Homographs	**Examples - Category**	**Connotation - Denotation**
wind - moving air.	breeze wind	He breezed through.
wind - to turn a stem in order to coil a spring, as in a watch.	blast wind	He blasted through.
		He moved through.

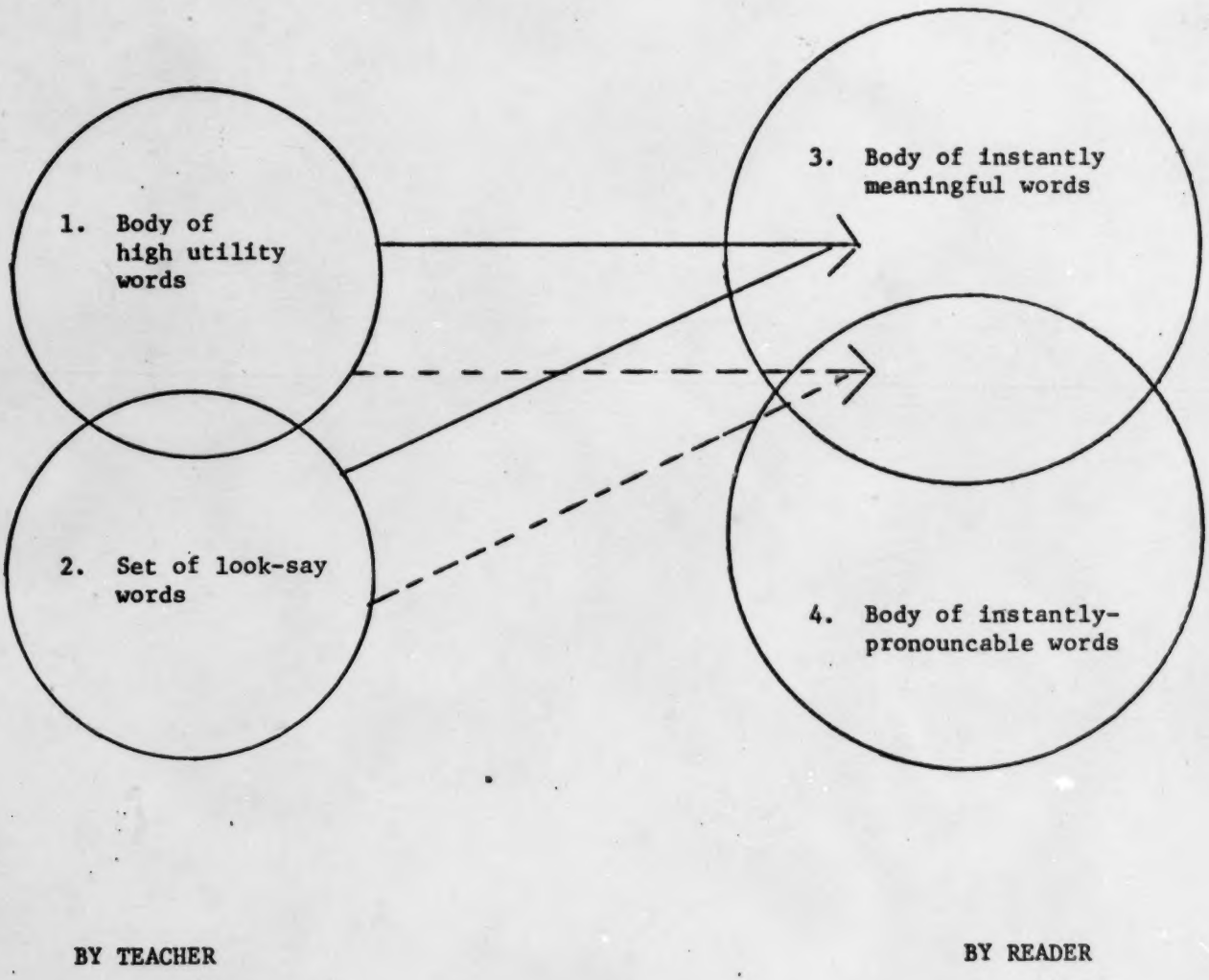

(TO BE) TAUGHT
(TO BE) ACQUIRED
1. Body of high utility words
2. Set of look-say words
3. Body of instantly meaningful words
4. Body of instantly-pronouncable words
BY TEACHER
BY READER

Figure 1. Differing definitions of sight vocabulary. Note that - - - - → indicates what should be the instructional focus at primary levels; ——→ indicat.s what should be the instructional focus beyond primary levels.

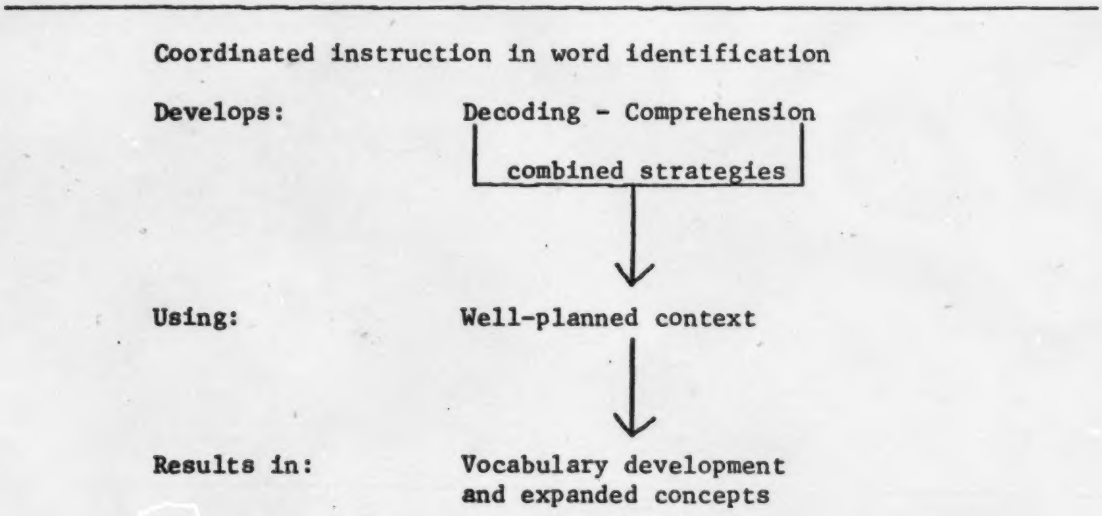


Figure 2. Instructional design for simultaneous development of word identification strategies and vocabulary-concepts.

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